



EMPIRE DAY

Hast thou attempted greatness
Then go on
Back turning slackens resolution.

1921

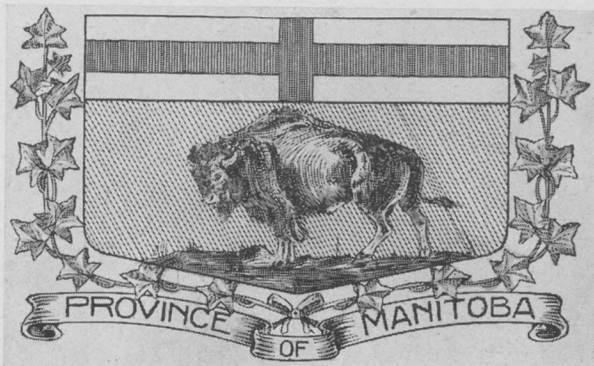
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
WINNIPEG, MANITOBA

#75

Scarce



Four Empire Builders



1921

Department of Education
Winnipeg, Manitoba

To the Teachers

Our Empire Day Booklet for 1920 contained a cut showing the main entrance and front of the New Legislative Building facing Broadway Avenue. Teachers who have visited the building will have seen the statues which adorn the East and West entrances. These are the statues of four famous Nation Builders, La Verendrye and Selkirk welcoming you at the Eastern portal, Dufferin and Wolfe at the Western.

The present Booklet reviews briefly the lives of these men and endeavors to show the part each has played in the expansion and development of Canada in her progress towards nationhood. In each case the writer has made a special study of the subject of his sketch, and his account contains interesting matter not usually given in a text for elementary (public) school grades. The Booklet should prove a valuable supplement to the text.



To the Pupils

To-day all over the British Empire as well as in our own Province of Manitoba Empire Day is celebrated. One hundred thousand Manitoba school boys and school girls are devoting their best efforts to the study of the lives of those men and women whose valor, heroism, foresight and patriotism laid the foundations of this great Empire, and to-day your attention is concentrated upon some of the men who have contributed much to the growth and development of our own fair Dominion.

You should strive earnestly to learn from them something of your duties and of your privileges as citizens of the Empire and of Canada, and to place the good of your community above any personal considerations.

The Empire Movement



MOTTO :

One King. One Flag. One Fleet. One Empire.



WATCHWORDS :

Responsibility, Duty, Sympathy, Self-Sacrifice.



OBJECT :

“It is an effort to awaken the peoples who constitute the British Empire to the serious duties which lie at their door, and to raise up a generation which will pay more heed than the present to the responsibilities entailed by partnership in such a mighty confederation of Nations as that over which the King reigns.

“It endeavours to broaden the ideas and sympathies of the subjects of the King-Emperor, whatever may be their colour, nationality, creed or class. It recognizes that knowledge and patriotism, as well as charity, should begin at home, but that, like charity, they should not end there.

“ ‘The Empire Movement’ calls upon all British subjects to love and fear God, honour the King, to obey the laws, to prepare themselves to advance the highest interests of the Empire in peace and war; to cherish patriotism, to regard the rights of other nations, to learn citizenship, to follow duty, to consider duties before rights, to acquire knowledge, to think broadly, to practise discipline, to subdue self, to work for others, to consider the poor and suffering.”—*The Earl of Meath, May 23rd, 1908.*



RALLYING CRY :

For God! For Duty! For Empire!



LA VERENDRYE

Some bold adventurers disdain
The limits of their little reign
And unknown regions dare descry.

La Verendrye



FOR all of us who accept the maxim that the strength of a people lies in its history, there is little need to justify the search for truth in regard to our ancestors who broke a trail over the western prairies and located sites which later became the centres of thriving industry and stirring thought. These noble and patriotic men were not alone concerned with making money but were more anxious to make a great name for themselves and a great Empire for their country; and we who have entered into their labours, who have inherited the wealth which they prospected for us, would do well not to forget that our greatest inheritance is their spirit of self sacrifice—the wealth “safe garnered in the grave”. It is perfectly fitting that a young nation just becoming conscious of itself should search its records to see what are its highest traditions, what seems to be its particular mission, who are the men who have created its ideals and given the peculiar direction to its upward march. If such a search be made, no name will be found more worthy of respect or of emulation than that of Pierre Gaultier de Varennes, Sieur de la Verendrye, who dedicated his fortune, his sons and his life to the exploration of the Canadian West in the search for the Western Sea.

La Verendrye was born in Three Rivers, November 17, 1685, of ancestors distinguished in the Canadian service and in the fur-trade. In youth his imagination was fed by stories of the voyageurs who traded in the Upper Country, of men who fought with or against the Indians and raided the New England Colonies. He saw the departure and return of the canoes laden with merchandise and furs. He shared all the quietness and all the excitement of life in the third largest town of early Canada and while his character was thus gradually formed, his ambition was nourished for the great adventure of his later life. He commenced his career in the army, took part in one raid on New England in 1704, in another upon Newfoundland in 1705, joined the French army in Flanders in 1807, was wounded in nine places in the battle of Malplaquet and left for dead on the field. He recovered his life and gained a lieutenant's commission for his bravery, but as he was unable to support this rank, he returned to Canada as an Ensign and from 1715 onwards tried to eke out a living in the fur trade at La Gabelle a little post on the Three Rivers. In 1712 he had married and during the next five years his four sons were born, Jean Baptiste, Pierre François and Louis Joseph, all four of whom later became associated with him in the great work which he was destined to accomplish. The next ten years of his life were uneventful, except that he gradually became possessed of the idea that he must discover the Western Sea which had been the goal of French explorers since the days of Cartier and Champlain.

In this worthy ambition, La Verendrye was much indebted to the dreams and the achievements of many pioneers, each of whom added something to the knowledge of Canadian geography as he found a new lake or river, but always fell short of the Pacific Ocean. Cartier got well up the St. Lawrence to the La Chine Rapids. Champlain went up the Ottawa to Lake Huron. Brulé had reached Lake Huron by another route but went on to Lake Superior. Nicolet

discovered Lake Michigan, Green Bay and followed the Fox River to the watershed between the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi systems. Radisson and Grosseilliers portaged from the Fox River to the Wisconsin and went on to the Mississippi. Joliet, Marquette and La Salle gathered the accumulative knowledge necessary to prove that the Mississippi did not empty into the Western Sea. Hennepin went up the Mississippi to the falls of St. Anthony and Dulhut explored the region between the head waters of the Mississippi and Lake Superior. In a word, before La Verendrye was born the French knew comparatively well the geography of North America on the Atlantic side of that land which divides the waters flowing south to the Gulf of Mexico, east to the Gulf of St. Lawrence and north to Hudson's Bay, but they were still haunted by dreams of an ever-receding salt sea which the Indians placed now here, now there, in the direction of the setting sun.

In 1688, when La Verendrye was but three years old, De Noyon ascended the Kaministiquia River and the chain of portages and streams which lead to Rainy Lake. Here he heard alluring tales of fortified towns and villages and white men on horseback from Assiniboines who offered to lead him to them. But he does not seem to have gone beyond the Lake of the Woods, although he heard of a river flowing from that Lake into the Western Sea. This river was later to prove to be the Winnipeg River and the Sea merely Lake Winnipeg.

In November 1716, Intendant Begon recommended that three posts be established in the Upper Country, one at Kaministiquia, one at Rainy Lake, a third at Lake of the Woods, as a preliminary to a more scientific search for the Western Sea. Accordingly in 1717, de la Noue was sent to establish the first post at Kaministiquia. He penetrated to Rainy Lake but was compelled by strife between the Crees and the Sioux to abandon that region. Pachot, one of his assistants, mentions in 1722 a river later known as the Pigeon River which was to become famous as the starting point of the Grand Portage route to the West. About 1720, Father Bobé urged the French Government to hurry on the search for the Western Sea lest the French be forestalled by the Spaniards and the Russians. Of six possible routes which he suggested, he recommended particularly, that starting westward from Kaministiquia. The French Government commissioned Father Charlevoix to go to the western posts and collect all information he could in regard to the various routes. He embodied the results of his journey in a memoir dated 1723 and suggested two alternatives, the one to follow the Missouri to its source which he hoped would be very near the Western Sea, the other to establish a mission among the Sioux with a view to proceeding on the information ultimately obtained from them. He favored the first proposal but the French Government chose the second because it was less expensive. Accordingly, Fort Beauharnois was built at Pepin on the Mississippi in the Sioux country, November 1727.

In 1727 also, La Verendrye was sent by the Governor of New France to take charge of the fur-trade at Lake Nepigon where the French had established a post to intercept the trade of the Indians on its way to the English at Hudson's Bay. His experience there taught him that this trade could be intercepted effectively only by establishing posts farther west. Here also, he became convinced that Ft. Beauharnois should be maintained at all costs as the means of promoting peace between the Assiniboines and the Sioux since their battleground was the lake and river highway through which he would have to travel on his western journey. In 1728, La Verendrye sent a memoir to Governor Beauharnois which contained what information was picked up at Nepigon from the Cree chiefs, Pacco, le Foye, le Petitjour, Tacchigis and above all a map prepared with the assistance of Ochakah an Indian guide; and

he asked the Governor for financial support that he might explore the regions inhabited by the Crees and the Assiniboinés. The Governor favored his scheme but the Home Government would not render any financial assistance, stating that a monopoly of trade with the western Indians should more than cover the cost of the expedition.

La Verendrye, then, was confronted at the outset of his great undertaking by the lack of faith and shortsightedness of the Home Government, the poverty of the Governor of New France, the vague and misleading information of the Indians who often told the French what they seemed most eager to learn, by the mutual hostility of the Crees, Assiniboinés and the Sioux, whose constant warfare not only endangered his life but made travel difficult and trade uncertain. At the same time, his own lack of capital threw him on the mercy of the rival fur-traders in Montreal who were more intent upon profits than upon discovery, worried him continually about returns and withheld goods at every crisis in his expedition, making it necessary for him to return to Montreal three times between 1731 and 1740 in order to pacify their greed and get the means to carry on. The delay of his explorations because of the sordidness of his partners in the fur-trade gave personal rivals a chance to impugn his motives, to accuse him of seeking wealth rather than the Western Sea and finally to procure the cancelling of his monopoly and the interruption of his great work. But in spite of debt, lawsuit, calumny and limited success, he and his sons struggled on until they had discovered our western country from Lake Winnipeg and the Saskatchewan to the Missouri and the foothills of the American Rockies.

On the eighth of June, 1731, La Verendrye left Montreal with about fifty men, including his three sons and his nephew La Jemmeraye. At Michilimackinac he was joined by Father Mesaiger, S.J., and the party made Pigeon River towards the end of August. Here owing partly to the terrors of the unknown and partly to the intrigues of rival traders, his men refused to go further and he had to be content with sending volunteers under command of his nephew to establish a post at Rainy Lake. They built Fort St. Pierre about two miles east of the modern Fort Francis in the autumn of 1731. Here, both fishing and trade were good and in the spring of 1732, the nephew was able to bring a valuable cargo of furs to Kaministiquia. Jean Baptiste went on to Michilimackinac to meet the canoes from Montreal and La Verendrye with the other sons, the nephew and the priest, went to Fort St. Pierre which they reached July 14, 1732, being welcomed by a great crowd of Indians. After the distribution of the usual presents, the party proceeded to Lake of the Woods and built Fort St. Charles on its western shore—the site of this Fort has been identified recently by a party under the direction of the late Archbishop of St. Boniface.—Here they were joined on Nov. 12, 1732 by Jean Baptiste returned from Montreal. Here they all wintered and in the spring La Jemmeraye went east with the canoes to make a report to Governor Beauharnois, being accompanied by the priest who was in ill health. La Verendrye was busy in the meantime trying to keep peace with the Indians, to supply food for his men and to work up trade with the tribes who had been in the habit of going to the English at Hudson's Bay. He found the Crees and the Assiniboinés in league against the Sioux and the Salteaux and one or other of the allies always in search of scalps and revenge. The spring rains of 1733 had drowned out most of the wild oats on which he had relied to provision his Fort and while urging his men to supply the loss by extra fish and game, he encouraged the Indians to sow maize and peas as a provision against future famine. Because of this he has been called "the first agriculturist of the West".

On Dec. 30th, 1733, he was visited by a party of Assiniboines and Crees from Lake Winnipeg who brought a bundle of beaver skins and some buffalo fat, and expressed a desire to form an alliance with the French. He gave them the best welcome he could, distributing powder, shot, tobacco and knives and promising to send a party of Frenchmen to trade with them every year. From these visitors he heard vague stories of mines and also of the Mandans whom he was later to visit only to discover that they were not white men after all and knew nothing about the Western Sea. None the less his visit was important in that the Indians carried back a spirit of goodwill that did much to ensure his success when he finally ascended the Assiniboine and proceeded to the Mandans on the Missouri.

In January, 1743, he had to go to Fort St. Pierre to act as peacemaker to the Indians. He succeeded in delaying but not averting war, for in May a large party of warriors arrived at Fort Charles, told him that war was already declared and asked for his son to lead the party. For fear that the French would otherwise be accused of cowardice, he allowed his son to go, but as the Crees and the Monsonis could not agree as to which tribe he should accompany, the boy later gave them both the slip and returned to Fort St. Charles.

On May 11th, 1734, two of his men who had accompanied the Crees to Lake Winnipeg in the preceding March, returned to Fort St. Charles with a chief and eighteen natives who advised building a fort at the mouth of the Red River where white oak was plentiful and a salt spring near by. The Cree chief also reported that the English Governor at Fort York had sent a friendly message to the French assuring them that he was not sorry to see them entering the west. At this point La Verendrye had to go to Montreal to pacify his partners in the fur trade. At Kaministiquia he directed Cartier, one of his party, to proceed to Lake Winnipeg and build a fort near the mouth of the Red River. The latter commenced this Fort in July, 1734, at the forks of the Roseau about six miles north of Selkirk, but the project was abandoned in the autumn in favor of Fort Maurepas on the Winnipeg River.

La Verendrye met La Jemmeraye at Michilimackinac, commissioned him to take charge of Fort St. Charles and thus allow his son to proceed to Lake Winnipeg. He then went on to Montreal and was able after great personal sacrifice to procure the means of carrying on for some time longer. His original partners had called a halt; his men were clamoring for wages and the French Government was still insisting that the expedition should be financed entirely out of the profits of the western trade. But although La Verendrye had established the posts as agreed, he was forty-three thousand livres in debt and he wanted the French government to give him a direct grant of thirty men, together with their outfit and expenses for three years. A compromise was effected whereby he rented his forts to his creditors for three years, giving them the right to manage them through agents. Though this left him freer to explore, it gave him a very limited outfit and he had to provide presents for the Indians out of his own pocket. On his return to the west, he brought his youngest son Louis Joseph who had been sent to school so that he could learn to draw maps correctly. This meant that henceforth his four sons were committed to the great adventure.

On his return to the west, in 1735, accompanied by Father Aulneau, S.J., as successor to Father Mesaiger, he found Fort St. Charles on the brink of starvation and had to use the supplies intended for exploration to tide them over the crisis. He sent his nephew to Fort Maurepas, which had been built in the autumn of 1734 by Jean Baptiste, after his escape from the Cree expedition

against the Sioux, and in February 1736, he sent two of his sons and two other Frenchmen to keep him company at the Post and prepared to join them in the spring. Unfortunately, provisions on the way from Montreal had been lost at Grand Portage and he was obliged to use the remainder of his outfit to keep his men alive. Following on this disaster came two others: his nephew, La Jemmeraye died on May 10, 1736 at the half-finished fort on the Red River and this death led to the temporary abandonment of Fort Maurepas. Then on June the 5th, Jean Baptiste, Father Aulneau and nineteen men on their way to meet the canoes from Montreal, in order to hurry relief to the Fort, were surprised and slain by a party of Sioux at Massacre Island. Though the Sioux had been deceived by a party of Chippewas into thinking that the French had fired on them a few days before, the loss was none the less bitter for the explorer, who had given both his nephew and his eldest son to the cause of discovery, was on the brink of starvation with a small force in a barren wilderness and uncertain as to whether the war cry would be heard immediately at the very door of his Fort. (As a matter of fact the excitement against the French was so great amongst the prairie Sioux that Fort Beauharnois had to be abandoned on May 30th, 1737.)

The Crees and Assiniboines swarmed around the French demanding revenge and urging the explorer to take command. With difficulty he convinced them that it would be sheer madness to attempt war without powder or shot and that it was absolutely essential to go hunting and gathering wild oats to keep the wolf from the door. In September 1736, he sent one of his sons to Maurepas with six men and a casket of presents, instructing him to pacify the Indians there till he came. With his other sons, he himself visited the fort in February, this being his first sight of Lake Winnipeg. He returned to St. Charles in June, 1737, left for Montreal with a brigade of furs and after much dickering, was able to equip a third expedition for the Western Sea. On his return in August of the following year, he learned that a large expedition of over thirteen hundred Crees, Monsonis and Assiniboines had gone off against the Sioux, but had failed owing to an epidemic of smallpox which had broken out amongst them. He summoned a council of the Indians at Fort St. Charles in September, 1738 and gave them the command of the Governor at Montreal to to cease hostilities against the Sioux, and made preparations for immediate departure for what is now Manitoba.

On September 11th, he left Pierre in charge of Fort St. Charles and with François and Louis Joseph set out for Fort Maurepas,—a company of six canoes. They arrived on September 22nd, started immediately for the forks of the Red and Assiniboine which they reached on September 24th—the first white men to see the site of the future city of Winnipeg. They found there only ten Cree huts and two chiefs. La Verendrye feasted with these for two days and though they tried to dissuade him from going up the Assiniboine, he set out on September 26th and pushed on to the point whence the Indians used to portage from the Assiniboine to Lac des Prairies (Lake Manitoba). Here, at Portage la Prairie, he stopped on October 2nd and commenced the erection of Fort La Reine to intercept the trade towards Hudson's Bay. On the 9th he was joined by one of his partners, M. de La Marque, who reported that he had taken M. de Louvières from Fort Maurepas to the Forks and had left him there to build a fort. This fort, Fort Rouge, was built in October 1738, on the south bank of the Assiniboine, but was soon abandoned as Fort La Reine and Fort Maurepas were found sufficient to take care of all trade in those regions.

Having finished Fort La Reine, La Verendrye set out on October the 18th to visit the Mandans accompanied by François and Louis Joseph and twenty men, together with the Indians who brought the party up to fifty-two. Three days later he came to an Assiniboiné village where he stopped for a buffalo feast. The next day he was joined by some six hundred Assiniboines who came from all directions to meet him. He received all these Indians as his children and pushed on as rapidly as these six hundred voluntary guides would allow him. On November 28th, he was met by a Mandan chief and four Assiniboines who had gone to announce his arrival. The Chief assured him of a generous welcome but in order to avoid entertaining so many Assiniboines, he started the rumour that the Sioux were on the war-path again. This ruse at first almost succeeded, but an old Chief shamed his followers into standing by La Verendrye and they stayed. On December 3rd, the whole party reached the Mandan fort and although the Mandans showed superior intelligence in the construction of their villages and unusual providence in laying up supplies for the future, the explorer found he had travelled three hundred cold and weary miles from Fort La Reine only to visit another tribe of Indians. These Indians were true to their blood in that the Chief stole La Verendrye's bag of presents in order to make sure of getting them all, but he had no information that could assist the explorer in reaching the Western Sea.

La Verendrye decided to spend the winter with the Mandans, but when the second rumour of the approach of the Sioux caused all the Assiniboines to flee in haste, his interpreter went with them. As a result of this misfortune, he decided to return to Fort La Reine leaving a couple of Frenchmen to learn the Mandan language. He started on his return voyage on December 13th, but did not reach his destination until February 1st, 1739, having been very ill en route—"I have never," he says, "endured so much hardship, sickness and fatigue as on that journey." This journey to the Mandans was the last actually made by La Verendrye himself in search of the Western Sea, although he still kept up the good work through his sons. In the early spring of 1739, he sent the Chevalier to visit Lake Manitoba and the mouth of the Saskatchewan. In 1740 he, himself, had to go once more to Montreal because his creditors had seized his furs at Michilimackinac and at the same time had refused to send him any more goods for trade. At Montreal he was met by a law suit which he settled out of court at great loss to himself and hurried back to Fort La Reine which he reached October 17th, 1741. His sons built Fort Dauphin on the north-west shore of Lake Dauphin, Fort Bourbon at the mouth of Red Deer River on Lake Winnipegosis, ascended the Saskatchewan to the Forks and built Fort Paskoyar at what is now the Pas. In April, 1742, he sent François, the Chevalier, and Louis Joseph to the Mandan country and they by linking up with various tribes and travelling generally in a south-westerly direction, came within sight of the foothills of the Rockies, probably near the Big Horn range; but the vagueness of all accounts makes only uncertainty sure. On their way back, opposite what is now Pierre (South Dakota), the buried on March 30th, 1743, an inscribed plate which was discovered by a school girl in March, 1913.

On his return to Montreal in the fall of 1743, the great Explorer and patriot was met with fresh charges of self seeking. A new Intendant, Bigot, was using his powerful influence against him and he was superseded in the western command. For six years his integrity and achievements were successfully misrepresented to the home government but in 1749 a reaction took place in his favor and he was made Chevalier of the Military Order of St. Louis and asked once more to take command of the forts in the west.

In September 1749, he wrote—"I shall consider myself fortunate after all the suffering hardship and danger I have gone through in this long period of exploration if I can at length establish my own disinterestedness, my ardent zeal and that of my children, for the glory of the King and the welfare of the colonies." But on December 5th, he died and with him passed the future of his sons. Unworthy rivals succeeded to their labors but not to their skill or to their patriotism. Both they and the forts which they had built, perished in obscurity. It was not until after the conquest that the west took an adequate place in the history of the fur trade. Then it was an alien race who used the inimitable French voyageur to follow in the footsteps of La Verendrye and his sons and push their trade and exploration to the Western Sea. But that same race which was alien to the French is now united with them to form the Canadian people. Both races are trying to form one Canadian nationality with a distinctive and worthy character; both can unite without reserve, in admiring the patriotism, courage, tenacity, optimism, disinterestedness, love of peace, achievement against great odds, of La Verendrye, to whom they owe so much and to whose memory they have been so tardy in rendering justice. From him too, both can learn that nothing is gained by harboring and cultivating a sense of wrong, but rather that the future affords an opportunity to vindicate the past even to one's enemies and to show that "Some work of noble note may yet be done, not unbecoming men who strove with gods."

D. C. HARVEY.






DUFFERIN

Statesman, yet friend to truth, of soul sincere,
In action faithful, and in honour clear.

Lord Dufferin

A Great Statesman



HE Dominion of Canada came into being on July first, 1867. Our form of Government was outlined in the British North America Act, which was framed along lines agreed upon at the Quebec Conference held in 1864.

It was declared that the executive government or authority should be vested in the Sovereign of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, to be administered according to the well understood principles of the British Constitution by the Sovereign personally, or by the representative of the Sovereign duly authorized.

Sir John A. Macdonald referring in the Canadian Parliament to the appointment by the sovereign of such a representative, spoke as follows: "We place no restriction on Her Majesty's prerogative in the selection of her representative. As it is now so it will be if this constitution is adopted. The Sovereign has unrestricted freedom of choice. Whether in making her selection she may send us one of her own family, a royal prince as a viceroy to rule over us, or one of the great statesmen to represent her, we know not. We leave that to Her Majesty in all confidence, but we may be permitted to hope that when the union takes place, and we become the great country which British North America is certain to be, it will be an object worthy of the ambition of the statesmen of England to be charged with presiding over our destinies."

Since 1867 eleven representatives of the Sovereign have occupied the vice-regal chair, and while some may not have ranked as great statesmen, all have played a prominent part in the development of the Empire. As diplomat, as administrator and as statesman, Lord Dufferin was probably the greatest of them all.

He was not without fit opportunity for the display of his varied and unusual gifts. In 1859 he was sent as British Commissioner to Syria to inquire into the massacre of Christians there. After serving as Under Secretary for State; Under Secretary for War, and later, as Paymaster General, he was in 1872 appointed Governor-General of Canada. After six years' service here, in what were troubled times for Canada, he left Ottawa in 1878, and the following year was appointed Ambassador to Russia. Later he occupied many other important and responsible positions and for four years was Viceroy of India. However, it is with his work as Governor-General that we are here concerned, and it will be noted that during the years of his administration he was frequently called upon to display his qualities of diplomacy and statesmanship.

In 1873 a grave crisis followed the exposure of the Pacific Railway scandal, Sir John A. Macdonald and his friends were charged with having made arrangements whereby a large sum of money had been received by them for election purposes from Sir Hugh Allen and his associates, in return for which sum Sir Hugh and his group were to be given the contract for building the railway. It was moved in the House of Commons that a select Committee of five should be appointed to inquire into the charges, and an Oaths Bill was passed to

empower the hearing of sworn evidence. But two important witnesses were absent, and the law officers of the Crown in London were of the opinion that "the Canadian Parliament could not vest in themselves the power to administer oaths, that being a power which the House of Commons did not possess in 1867 when the Imperial Act was passed."

To meet the difficulty Sir John suggested that a Royal Commission be granted to the select Committee. The matter was urgent, and the Governor-General consented. But two members of the committee now refused to act, and prorogation had been arranged for August 13th, the date set for the hearing before the Commission. Lord Dufferin arrived in Ottawa on that day from a trip to the Maritime provinces. Nothing had been done by the Committee, and there was no report. Sir John advised prorogation. Ninety opposition members petitioned Lord Dufferin not to prorogue until the charges had been fully inquired into. The Governor-General felt himself constitutionally bound to follow the advice of his ministers, and Parliament was accordingly prorogued.

In the political storm which followed, the Governor was not spared. He was accused in the press and on the platform of having interfered with the freedom and privilege of debate. He was compared to King John, to James II., and even to Charles I. Yet when the heat of debate had died away, Sir Richard Cartwright, one of the ninety petitioners, recorded as his considered judgment that "Lord Dufferin acted with strict impartiality all through."

In a bitterly contested election, Sir John went down to defeat. He was succeeded by Alexander Mackenzie. The new constitution had begun to function, but there was abundant opportunity for the exercise of the Governor-General's diplomatic skill. Occasion was not long in arising.

It was by means of special concessions that British Columbia had been induced to enter confederation. The Western province had been promised that within ten years a railway would be built from Montreal to Vancouver. Nearly three years had elapsed and little progress had been made.

Mr. Mackenzie sent a special representative, Mr. Edgar, to British Columbia to endeavor to come to a basis of settlement. Mr. Edgar failed in his mission, and the Western province despatched its premier to England to plead its case before Lord Carnarvon, the Secretary of State, who offered to act as arbitrator. His offer was accepted.

The Secretary's award provided:

- (1) That the railway from Esquimalt to Nanaimo was to be begun at once.
- (2) That surveys of the Canadian Pacific Railway should be pushed on vigorously.
- (3) That a wagon road and a telegraph line should be built to keep pace with construction.
- (4) That \$2,000,000 per annum should be spent in railway construction in British Columbia, and
- (5) That the railway should be completed by 1890.

But the award, though it passed the Commons, was defeated in the Senate by a majority of two, and British Columbia clamored for separation.

Lord Dufferin determined to visit the West. Everywhere he was received with the utmost cordiality, and before leaving the Province made an important

address to a small but influential meeting of the various Committees he had seen. In this address he pronounced British Columbia to be "a glorious province, a province which Canada should be proud to possess, and whose association with the Dominion she ought to regard as the crowning triumph of Confederation." He showed that the responsibility for the delay in constructing the railway lay not with the government of Mr. Mackenzie, but with the Senate. He brushed aside the idea that British Columbia desired to secede, and finally remarked that "if ever I have the good fortune to come to British Columbia again, I hope it may be by rail."

For his tact in dealing with this difficult situation, the Governor-General received a congratulatory despatch from Lord Carnarvon. British Columbia had been saved for Confederation, her people began to believe in her future, and to put faith in the intention of the Government to proceed promptly with the construction of the long hoped-for railway. Lord Dufferin's promises were amply fulfilled when in 1885, five years before the date set by Lord Carnarvon, the last spike of the Canadian Pacific was driven with fitting ceremony. Lord Dufferin was by this time in India, but he remained with us long enough to witness the completing of the intercolonial between Halifax and Quebec, and the fulfilment of another of the pre-confederation pledges.

Another perplexing problem arose in connection with the Red River Rebellion. The British Government considered that "an amnesty should be granted for all offences committed during the disturbance at Red River in 1867-1870, except the murder of Scott." But Archbishop Tache, who had great influence with the Métis and who had been requested to use it in bringing about a settlement, had promised immunity to Riel and his followers. The Archbishop contended that the authorities were bound by this promise. Lord Lisgar, the former Governor-General, the British Government, and the Macdonald ministry declined to "recognize the force of any such obligation." The matter was pressing, and the Mackenzie administration found it very embarrassing. On December tenth, 1874, Lord Dufferin forwarded to London a very important despatch in which he dealt with the various claims made by those who favored the granting of an amnesty. The Governor-General then acted upon his own responsibility. Without consulting his ministers, he commuted the capital sentence which had been pronounced upon Lepine, to two years' imprisonment. Riel quietly disappeared and the newly formed Province of Manitoba settled down quietly to the great tasks of internal development. Lord Dufferin's actions did not pass unchallenged. They were debated upon the floor of the House of Lords, and there severely criticized, but they met nevertheless with a general and very encouraging approval.

Other important events during the Governor's tenure of office were the making of the Halifax award whereby Canada received for the use of her fisheries the sum of five and a half million dollars from the United States, the creation of the Supreme Court of Canada, and the admission into Confederation of Prince Edward Island.

Eminently valuable as were the services of the Governor within the confines of the Dominion, they were equally useful in bringing the greatness and vast possibilities of Canada before the attention of the outside world. Leading statesmen often regarded the colonies as millstones around the neck of the mother country, and "it was urged against Mr. Gladstone that he had in tolerably plain terms informed Canada that England would consent to retain her only so long as she cost nothing, and would be ready to cast her off at any moment, and would certainly do so if ever her sacrifice became necessary



LORD DUFFERIN

to secure peace." Not so Lord Dufferin. In a speech made at Belfast in 1872, just after receiving his appointment to Canada, after referring to the vast natural resources of the Dominion, her waterways, her great fisheries, her inexhaustible forests, he said: "But what is not generally understood is, that beyond the present inhabited regions of the country, beyond the towns, the lakes and woods, there stretches out an enormous breadth of rich alluvial soil, comprising an area of thousands of square miles so level, so fertile, so ripe for cultivation, so profusely watered and intersected by enormous navigable rivers, with so exceptionally mild a climate, as to be destined at no distant time to be occupied by millions of our prosperous fellow subjects, and to become a central granary for the adjoining continents. In fact, it may be doubted whether the inhabitants of the Dominion themselves are as yet fully awake to the magnificent destiny in store for them, or have altogether realized the promise of their young and virile manhood. Like a virgin goddess in a primeval world, Canada still walks in unconscious beauty among her golden woods, and by the margin of her trackless streams, catching but broken glances of her radiant majesty as mirrored in their surface, and scarcely recks as yet of the glories awaiting her in the Olympus of the Nations."

Again, speaking to the Canada Club, London, England, in 1875, he tells us "If to love a country with one's heart, to feel that in each one of its inhabitants one possesses a personal friend, to believe in its future as implicitly as any one of its most sanguine sons, to take a pride in everything which belongs to it—its scenery, its climate, its physical and moral characteristics, the idiosyncrasies of its people, nay, their very sports and pastimes—be any test of loyalty to its interests, then I feel my devotion to Canada can never be called in question;" and again: "if I can carry home with me to England the consciousness that the people of Canada regard me as having been a faithful, loving and devoted servant of the Dominion; and if at the same time, I am fortunate enough to have merited the approval of my Sovereign and countrymen at home, I shall consider few public servants will ever have reaped so honourable and so dearly prized a reward." The name of Dufferin is still green in the hearts of the Canadian People as one who, to a very notable degree, understood and sympathized with their hopes and aspirations.

In his consistent and systematic advocacy of the need for strengthening the ties between the Motherland and the over seas Dominions, Lord Dufferin was the pioneer of a broad Imperialism. The words spoken by him forty years ago are true to-day as then:

"Above all remember, things are not with you as they were a few short years ago. British North America is no longer a congeries of disconnected provinces destitute of any strong bond of sympathy or mutual attachments. You are no longer colonists or provincials. You are the owners, the defenders and guardians of half-a-continent, of a land of unbounded promise and predestined renown.

"Life would scarcely be worth living unless it gave us something for whose sake it was worth while to die. Outside our domestic circle there are not many things that come up to that standard of value. But one of these you possess—a country you can be proud of, and never should a Canadian forget, no matter what his station in life, what his origin or special environments, that in this broad Dominion he has that which it is worth while to both live and die for."

"Nor do even the confines of two oceans suffice to hedge you in; but you share in an Empire whose flag floats, whose jurisdiction asserts itself, in every

quarter of the globe, whose ships whiten every sea, whose language is destined to spread further than any European tongue, whose institutions every nation aspiring to freedom is endeavouring to imitate, and whose vast and widespread colonies are vying with each other in their affectionate love for the Mother Country, in their longing to add lustre to the English name, in their longing to see cemented still more closely the bonds of that sacred and majestic union within which they have been born."

The Governor's final admonitions were nobly heeded: "What then is to be my parting counsel to the citizens of the Dominion before I turn my face to the wall. A very few words will convey them. Love your country, believe in her, honor her, work for her, live for her, die for her."

Well has Lord Dufferin merited the title—A Great Statesman.

S. BURLAND.






SELKIRK

For strong souls
Live like fire-hearted suns, to spend their strength
In furthest striving action.

Lord Selkirk



HOMAS DOUGLAS, the seventh son of the fourth Earl of Selkirk, was born at St. Mary's Isle, Kirkcudbrightshire, Scotland in the year 1771. He had all the advantages of, and in his 28th., year he became heir to the Daer Estate. Considerable wealth, a social status unique in his surroundings, and a position of influence awaited through his childhood to be his servants on attaining manhood.

Selkirk was not seduced by such amenities as these to avoid the exacting school of the world. In the age of Napoleon and Wellington, the world forces that rocked humanity had too much of a terrible fascination to allow a mind such as his to be insulated by local claims.

Education and travel abroad widened his vision and quickened his sympathy. The Revolution in France, the tyranny of Napoleon, the unending trials of England, the perennial ills of Ireland, and the silent struggles of Scotland arose like a chorus from embattled humanity, and the future Earl of Daer responded to the call.

As universal study broadened his sympathy, the force of circumstances narrowed his activities. Then to Britain, and British problems alone he turned a keen edged mind.

It is worth noting that two problems, Defence and Emigration, were early in the foreground of his plans. To the latter of these we must look for a badge of service whereby to distinguish him from the many. As we look now at that Britain, in the light of a century, we find these were two different angles to one of her problems—the preservation of her civilization.

Measured from visible signs of success, Selkirk failed. Yes, he fought up hill and was beaten in the end, but in that fight is to be found the real essence of his character, and out of his failure there comes down to us the personality of the man.

At the death of his father in 1799 he became Master of the Estate, and heir to the title, the Earl of Daer. In his shyness and modesty of which at times he was bitterly conscious in his early dreams and their expression in his articles, there is an anticipation of his North American career.

Ireland's troubles were hushed, not soothed by the Union of 1800. In Scotland, sheep farming was displacing agriculture. The consequent evictions meant a loss to the country of her best sons. The soldiers would come home from Europe unsettled. The settlers driven out would become soldiers of England's enemies. With our perspective, we may see the problem a more urgent one than Selkirk saw it, yet this was the problem he gave himself up to solve.

His idea was first applied in establishing a colony of 800 settlers from Ross-shire, Inverness and the Isle Sky in Prince Edward Island. This was attempted by way of experiment, but its promised success heightened his enthusiasm. He was further inspired upon his visit to Canada by the industry of the settlers—their hard days and their cheerful evenings as they gathered around the camp fires to dance to the pibroch of the bagpipes.

Miles MacDonell, the Earl's faithful lieutenant, was the first governor of the colony. As he exceeded his requirement in enthusiasm, he fell short of his actual need in practical and human wisdom. He was too impetuous, too much of the moonshine optimist, too abstract and unbending, failing to give justice its human equation.

On January 8th, 1812, he read the proclamation of Selkirk's title to the land. The outstanding cause of the ensuing conflict was that opposite and irreconcilable interests were overlapping. The prophecy of the lion and the lamb was fulfilled out of turn to the embarrassment of the lamb.

Selkirk relied on his title to the land. The Company had a good title, and the title it gave to Selkirk was indefeasible. His position, though legally good, was empirically bad. To the popular British mind, this was a "No Man's Land." There were too many human factors and frailties to be considered. But legal right to Miles MacDonell was as Calvinism to John Knox. There was no room for compromise. His first crusade against the infidel was staged in the same year. He went to Brandon House and posted a copy of the proclamation on the door of the North Wester's fur trading house.

The fact that Selkirk's instructions to his Lieutenant enjoining moderation, never reached him, was one of a few incidents that may well be counted in the play of accident. From Selkirk's area, the North Westers exacted tons of pemican while the settlers had to import from England. Spencer, who acted as Sheriff, to the settlement, seized 400 bags of this pemican from the Nor'Westers. MacDonell erected a battery at Fort Douglas. North West canoes were stopped, and arms seized. The first act of the drama ended in the arrest of MacDonell, and the arrival of Governor Semple, his successor and Colin Robertson.

The half breeds, whose love and loyalty to the settlement was gained by the latter protecting them against the warlike Sioux, now resented the measures adopted to enforce the charter, and the embargo. Deprived of their master's provisions, they were receptive to the clever propaganda used by men like Duncan Cameron against the settlers. It must be remembered also that Hudson's Bay officials in London supported the embargo, which was declared to secure the settlement, only so long as they could view it as an instrument to embarrass the North Westers.

The North Westers, after nursing their wrath for a time, prepared for revenge. Unlike MacDonell, who acted upon motives of authority, they guided their actions by astute methods of policy. John McDonald, of Garth, organized the predatory impulses of the traders into a slow marching force. While Duncan Cameron, by subtle policy, won over as many as possible of the Indians, the half breeds, and even the settlers, while the McGillivrays bombarded the foreign office in London. The legal position of Selkirk was disputed by the open and more popular theory of competition.

In the meantime, the taking and razing of Fort Gibraltar is another act to be appended to the misdemeanors of the Semple-Robertson party.

June 19th, 1816, was the Dark Day of the settlement. The North Westers, whose ranks were extended by various half breed and Indian groups, commanded by Cuthbert Grant, marched from Qu'Appelle to Portage la Prairie and thence towards the settlement. Their intentions were not then clearly defined to the settlers. It was quite natural in any case that Semple should have attributed to them a determination to recover their dismantled forts at The

Forks and at Pembina, and perhaps to ruin the settlement. They approached in a half-moon formation upon the settlers who were in the angle between the two rivers. Semple approached the forces, angry words were exchanged. Semple was killed, together with a number of settlers. Fort Douglas was occupied, and the North Westers were supreme in the district.

The disaster of Seven Oaks was not known to Selkirk until he arrived at Sault Ste. Marie on his way to Fort William that summer. At Montreal the position of the Hudson's Bay Company had improved. Lord Selkirk, in the spring, set out for the settlement by way of the Great Lakes. After great difficulty and disaffection, he secured a guard of De Meurons, so named from the colonel of their regiment, and set out with a party of about a hundred men. Officially, Canada was not on his side. Sir Gordon Drummond, the Governor General, was openly in sympathy with the North Westers.

At Fort William, Selkirk, fully conscious of the disaster to his settlement, and intimately acquainted with his opponents' designs, proceeded to deal with them in a summary way. Prompt action alone could save the situation, he reasoned. Daniel McKenzie, a disaffected and drunken North Wester, was in charge of supplies. With him, Selkirk entered into a specious agreement, whereby he got control of their supplies. McGillivray whom he arrested, surrendered quietly. Soon the whole situation was reversed, but the methods employed were to weigh heavily against Selkirk when North West lobbying was resumed at the Foreign Office.

On May Day, 1817, Selkirk first appeared among his settlers. The stars of good fortune seemed to hang about the colony. A happy and contented settlement in Kildonan began to organize their church and schools. The personal qualities of its founder and presiding genius inspired co-operative strength and solidarity. The Indians, more responsive than the Winter partners to the dignified and courtly bearing of a Scottish Nobleman, gave more than formal assurance of their loyalty. When he negotiated a treaty with them, they called him "Their Silver Chief."

A warrant for his arrest was now obtained in Upper Canada, and served upon him at Fort William. In contrast to McGillivray, he resisted arrest. This was useful to his enemies. From the Foreign Office, where the North Westers were not idle, came the fatal despatch from Lord Bathurst, ordering that an indictment should be prepared against the Earl at once.

Selkirk won at Montreal, won at Fort William, won gloriously on his settlement, but failed at the Foreign Office at home. The litigation which followed, had little of practical importance, but Selkirk's influence was weakened, his work was interrupted, and his reputation was dragged in the mud of conflicting commercial interests. A union between the North-westers and his Company became a subject of negotiation. This, Selkirk set himself against as a matter of principle. He could not abandon the settlement to their avowed enemies. He returned to England, worn by exposure, the victim of a dreaded disease.

Even this fatal malady had one feature of kindness in its cruelty. The physical factors over which he had little control, were working towards Union—a union that was to enamel the wrongs already covered over. One year after his death the union of the Hudson's Bay and North West Companies was consummated. His ever loyal helpful and abiding Countess watched the mists gather round his broken spirit. He died, the friend of the settlement, and the uncompromising foe of those he conceived to be its enemies.

The comment of his father, when writing him in 1793, may well be recalled—"I have known many lads of sixteen who, as the vulgar saying is, could have bought and sold you in a market." It wasn't conceivable to those traders that a man could have other than selfish motives. To them he was indeed a stranger, and they took him in.

It is just 101 years, the 8th of this April since Selkirk died at Pau in France. Time is on his side. After another half century of neglect, the North West, which he estimated would be capable of producing for thirty millions of people, is almost ready to fulfil his prophecy. His settlement is now the Arch of Confederated Canada.

A Country needs a tyrant seldom, great statesmen sometimes, great characters always. It is the memory of such personal figures as Selkirk that will hang the Empire's night with stars. By men of his vision, its boundaries have been widened, through men of his integrity, we may hope they will be maintained. In devotion to duty, he fought for a principle, fought up hill, to be beaten in the end. All the way it was a plucky and clean fight. His great mistake at Fort William was due to his over zeal for decency and right. In the words of Burke, "He pushed justice too far." It is no more than his modest portion to ascribe to him the saving of one of the most productive and progressive areas of this Dominion to the Sovereignty of the British Crown.

R. K. FINLAYSON





WOLFE

One crowded hour of glorious life
Is worth an age without a name.

Wolfe, 1727-1759

*'In days of yore, from Britain's shore,
Wolfe, the dauntless hero, came;
And planted firm Britannia's flag
On Canada's fair domain.*



IT is a fitting tribute to the part played by Wolfe in bringing Canada into the circle of the British Empire that the opening lines of one of our noblest national songs should do honour to his memory. His dauntless courage and heroic death are a splendid inspiration and a magnificent heritage for Canadians of all ages.

The importance of his victory and the circumstances of his death unite in creating for him a unique position in our annals.

He came to the St. Lawrence in 1759 comparatively unknown and untried, and absurdly young for the work in hand. After weeks of failure and sickness, when all seemed lost, he conceived and carried through without a hitch a most difficult and daring plan which paved the way for a signal triumph and he died in the moment of victory. Fortune could grant no higher honour.

Had he failed, negotiations in Europe or relief from France might have saved Canada to the Bourbons, for few British statesmen shared Pitt's views as to the importance of the new land. But he succeeded, and, in destroying the power of France in Canada, won for himself an assured place among the founders of the Empire.

EARLY LIFE AND CHARACTER

James Wolfe was born in 1727 in a small manor house which still stands in Westerham, a quiet Kentish village some twenty miles from London. His father was a distinguished soldier. His mother came of a good Yorkshire family and was the chief influence during his younger days. We learn from numerous letters of the tender relations between them, and of his never-failing consideration and deference under trying circumstances.

Wolfe's schooling was received mainly from the Rev. J. F. Swinden, at Greenwich. Though not a brilliant student, the lad did sound work and developed a life-long fondness for mathematics. In his fourteenth year he obtained permission to accompany his father on an expedition against the Spanish colonies, but was prevented from going by sickness. He returned to school, but left again in 1741 on obtaining a commission in his father's regiment of Marines.

Wolfe was by this time a lanky youth—he grew to a height of six feet three inches. His personal appearance was by no means heroic. His shoulders were narrow, his limbs long and awkward. His features were plain to a degree. A colourless and muddy complexion, high cheek bones, receding forehead and chin, and a slightly up-turned, pointed nose, were surmounted by a shock of fiery red hair. But his mouth was firm, his blue eyes bright and eager. He had the courage of a lion, and was one of those rare men whose supreme joy it is to

lead troops into action. He had, too, a well trained mind which he kept continually exercised in the study of his profession and his favourite mathematics. He showed great capacity for organization and unerring judgment. He made friends easily, took great delight in dancing, was most chivalrous to women, and popular wherever he went.

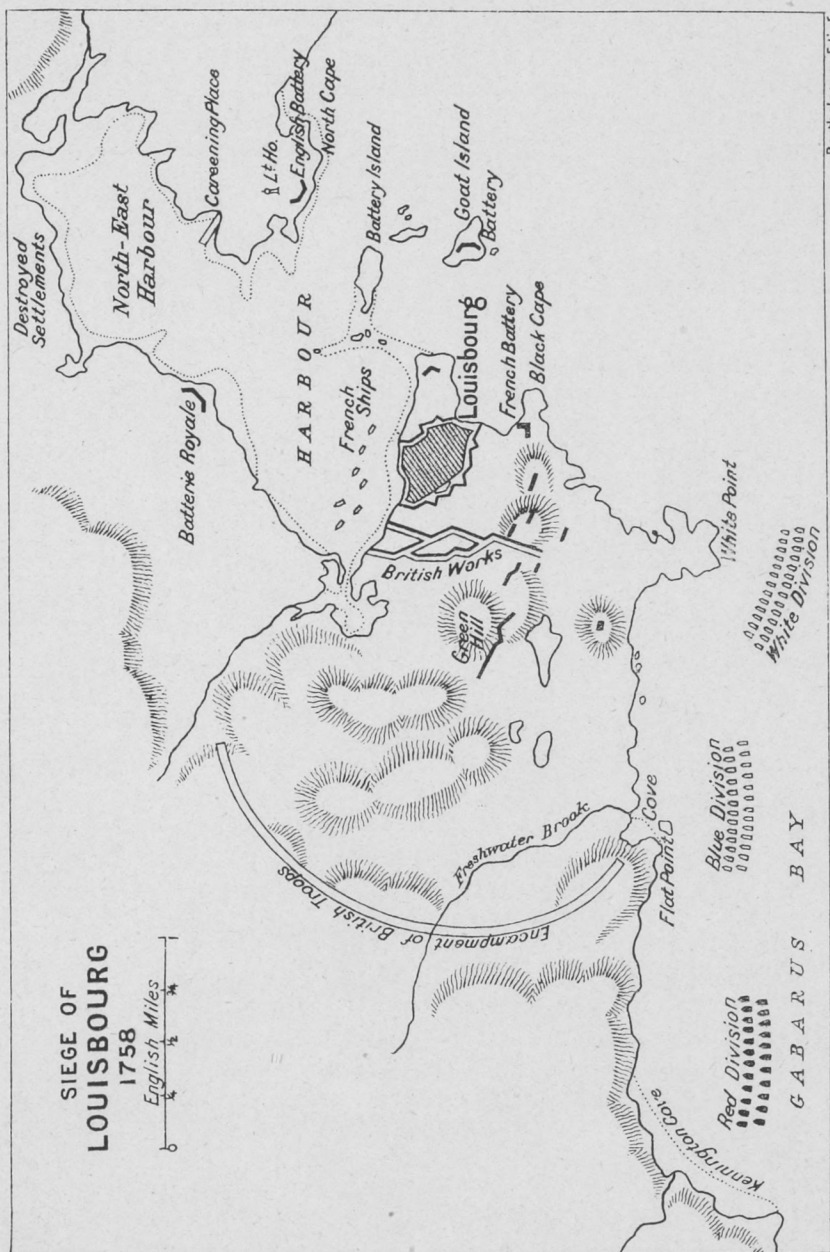
MILITARY TRAINING

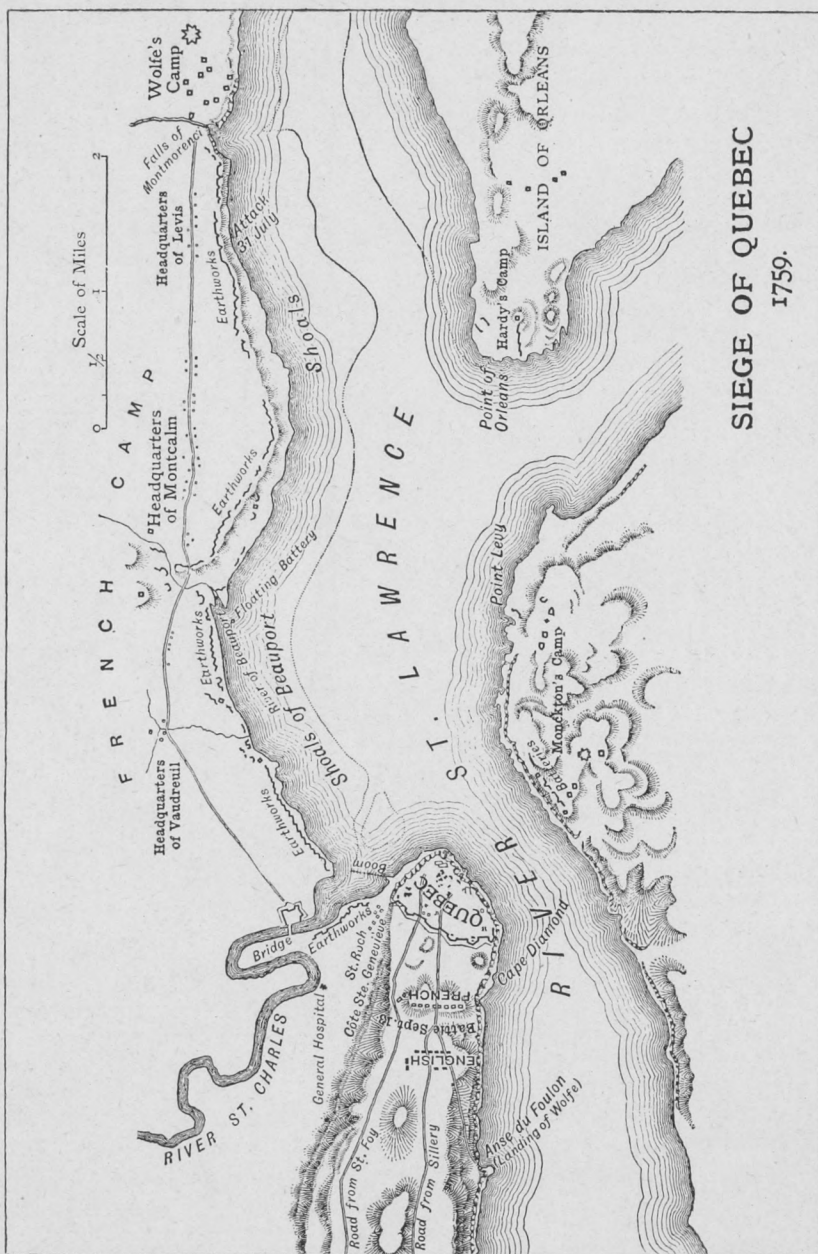
After receiving his first commission, Wolfe immediately exchanged into an infantry regiment and crossed with it to Flanders in 1742. In the following year at the age of sixteen he acted as adjutant of his regiment in the battle of Dettingen. Three years of garrison duty in Flemish towns followed, a period of sore trial to one eager for active service. His regiment was ordered home when the Jacobite rebellion of 1745 broke out. He fought with conspicuous bravery at Falkirk and Culloden. A short campaign in Flanders in 1746-7 was followed by years of garrison duty, police work and road-building in Scotland, relieved by occasional balls and much study, but saddened by an unsuccessful love affair with a lady of the court. Garrison duty in England occupied the years of 1752-1756. It was a keen disappointment to him that his regiment, reputed the best disciplined in the whole army, was left behind when Braddock sailed for America in 1755, and he was fiercely indignant at the ignorance and cowardice that led to the rout on the Monongahela. About this time, though quite poor, he refused two very lucrative posts because acceptance of either would have withdrawn him from active service. In 1757 he took part in an expedition which failed to capture the French fortress of Rochefort. The leaders of the expedition were afterwards censured for misconduct, but Wolfe's work added to his reputation, and brought him to the notice of Pitt. In January of the next year he was summoned to London to receive his appointment as brigadier-general to sail with Amherst against Louisburg.

THE EMPIRE'S NEED

The expedition against Louisburg and Quebec were essential parts of a mighty scheme formulated in the brain of that most famous "Organizer of Victory," William Pitt, Earl of Chatham.

The half-century old struggle for world-empire between Great Britain and France had broken out anew in the Seven Years' War (1756-63). The Bourbon-Hapsburg-Romanoff alliance threatened the very existence of Great Britain and her ally, Prussia. The first years of the war, though redeemed by the brilliant victories of Frederick the Great at Rossbach and Leuthen and Clive's astounding success at Plassey, witnessed so many British failures in America and Europe that the nation was plunged into deep despondency. The appointment of Pitt in 1757 as secretary of state for war with practically unlimited power was the salvation of the state. His moving eloquence, burning patriotism, splendid powers of organization and profound perception of the essential factors of the struggle transformed the spirit of Britain. By large grants of money and small supplies of men he enabled Frederick to keep France busy in Europe. A large portion of the fleet was detached to blockade French ports; the remainder, with the flower of the army was employed in the conquest of the French colonial empire. In both army and navy titled incompetents gave place to men of vigour and ability. Among the new appointments, Wolfe's name appeared.





SIEGE OF QUEBEC 1759.

SUPPLYING THE EMPIRE'S NEED

Early in 1758 Wolfe sailed for America. He was a wretched sailor and found the three months' voyage most distressing. But the prospect of early action soon restored his vigour. On June 1st Amherst and Boscawen with 12,000 soldiers and as many sailors came in sight of Louisburg. The great fortress was held by a garrison of about 8,000 soldiers and sailors under the command of the brave and skilful Drucour. Its defences were in poor condition, but its situation was admirable. The British landed under heavy fire on an open and surf-lashed shore. Wolfe, thoroughly in his element, led the party and drove the French back with the bayonet. The landing of the guns and the placing of them in position involved enormous labour, but when this had been done, the British lines began to close in. The garrison held out gallantly and only surrendered on July 25th when all the vessels in the harbour had been destroyed and Amherst's men were on the point of storming the city. Drucour's defence had made it impossible for the British to reach Quebec that year. Wolfe had played a very prominent part throughout the whole siege, and on his return to England was offered the command of the expedition against Quebec which was to be made next year. He joyfully accepted and went to Bath to recuperate. There he met the Miss Lowther whose miniature he carried when he fell. His health benefitted little by his stay at Bath for he was immersed in the organization of his expedition. After much negotiation he secured the right to pick his own officers, among whom were Monkton, Murray, Townshend and Carlton. A special grant of £500 from the government for expenses was necessary to eke out Wolfe's modest pay of £2 a day. On February 17th, more fit for a hospital than for a campaign, he sailed in Admiral Saunders' ship and again had a wretched crossing. His troops collected at Halifax and Louisburg, and on June 26th, the best army sent out of England since the peace of Utrecht cast anchor off the Isle of Orleans, within four miles of Quebec, having met with no opposition on its way up river. The rock bound citadel of Quebec, however, was regarded with considerable justice as impregnable, and its defence was in the hands of a skilled veteran, the gallant Marquis Montcalm. His troops, about 14,000 in number, were badly equipped and, with the exception of five French regiments, of doubtful quality. There was, moreover, much friction between the irascible Montcalm and the incompetent, self-assertive governor, Vaudreuil, who was his superior in rank. Yet the natural strength of the fortress was such that Wolfe's task seemed well nigh hopeless. The folly of the governor allowed Wolfe to occupy Point Levis on the shore facing the stronghold, but it was not until July 31st, that the British made a serious attack. On that day Wolfe landed a brigade on the low lying shore facing Montcalm's camp. Without waiting for reinforcements or even taking the trouble to form their ranks, his foolhardy grenadiers, in spite of all their officers could do, made straight for Montcalm's lines. A deluge of rain came on and when the men were finally withdrawn they left behind them 443 of their number in killed and wounded. A period of the gravest anxiety and sickness followed for Wolfe. Quebec was effectually isolated from Europe, but supplies were obtained by the garrison without much difficulty from up the river. The town itself was almost in ruins as the result of weeks of cannonading, but no impression had been made on the defences. With the coming of September Wolfe nerved himself for a final attempt. Probably not until September 10th, had he any definite plan in mind, but for a week before this date he harassed the French beyond measure by feints now against Montcalm's camp, now against a point nine miles above the city, now twenty miles up



JAMES WOLFE

river. Under cover of one of these feints he was able to break camp and re-embark his men without loss. The French were bewildered by the ceaseless activity of the fleet carrying troops hither and thither. The prevailing impression was that Wolfe was about to retreat. We now know that he was hard at work perfecting his plans for a landing whose details he kept even from his brigadiers until the moment for action arrived. He met with one piece of great good fortune: on September 12th, Montcalm ordered a regiment out to cover the cart track that led from a cove two miles above Quebec to the Heights of Abraham; Vaudreuil countermanded the order, thus leaving Wolfe's path clear. For in the darkness of that night a great concentration was taking place among the British. At dawn Wolfe landed at the cove. The small guard was surprised, and without loss, 5,000 British veterans marched up the trail and lined up on the Plains. Montcalm, fearing that reinforcements would reach Wolfe and underestimating the number of men that Wolfe had been able to bring up, immediately gave battle. Two deep, in a "thin red line", the British red coats stood grimly at attention until the French were within forty paces of them. They then fired by regiments, advanced twenty paces through the smoke screen, poured in another volley and then charged the broken and fleeing enemy. But without their heroic leader. Twice hit as he paced along the front of his line, Wolfe fell mortally wounded as the charge was sounded.

Montcalm spurred hither and thither in a frantic effort to re-form his men, but it was not to be. Caught in the press of the fugitives he was carried along towards Quebec. A shot from the only British gun passed through his body, but the gallant Marquis rode steadily into the city where he died before morning.

Vaudreuil fled in panic towards Montreal. De Ramezay, left in command, hastened to surrender.

Wolfe's work was done.

REFLECTIONS

It is more than a hundred and fifty years since Wolfe crowned a life of devotion to duty with his supreme sacrifice. In his day the call of the Empire was for fighting men. Today the Empire still calls, but primarily for men of a different type. The Empire's mission today is to take the lead in preserving and extending the democracy for whose sake the Great War has been fought, and men devoted as Wolfe are required for this work.

It needs but a moment's reflection to realize that with the inevitable advance in the efficiency of death-dealing appliances a war in fifty or even in twenty years' time must assuredly thrust civilization back into chaos from which it has so slowly and painfully emerged. It is the part of the British Empire to join with all other democracies to make such a catastrophe for ever impossible. It is our part as citizens of the Empire to emulate Wolfe's devotion to duty, and to do our duty in the new circumstances in which we find ourselves placed.

G. J. REEVE.

